Biogeosciences Discuss., 9, 1129–1159, 2012 www.biogeosciences-discuss.net/9/1129/2012/ doi:10.5194/bgd-9-1129-2012 © Author(s) 2012. CC Attribution 3.0 License.



This discussion paper is/has been under review for the journal Biogeosciences (BG). Please refer to the corresponding final paper in BG if available.

Environmental factors regulating winter CO₂ flux in snow-covered boreal forest soil, interior Alaska

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Received: 22 November 2011 – Accepted: 18 January 2012 – Published: 26 January 2012

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.



Abstract

Winter CO₂ flux is an important element to assess when estimating the annual carbon budget on regional and global scales. However, winter observation frequency is limited due to the extreme cold weather in sub-Arctic and Arctic ecosystems. In this study, the continuous monitoring of winter CO₂ flux in black spruce forest soil of interior Alaska was performed using NDIR CO₂ sensors at 10, 20, and 30 cm above the soil surface during the snow-covered period (DOY 357 to 466) of 2006/2007. The atmospheric pressure was divided into four phases: >1000 hPa (HP: high pressure); 985 < *P* < 1000 (IP: intermediate pressure); <986 hPa (LP: low pressure); and a snow-melting period (MP); for the quantification of the effect of the environmental factors determining winter CO₂ flux. The winter CO₂ fluxes were 0.22 ± 0.02, 0.23 ± 0.02, 0.25 ± 0.03, and 0.17 ± 0.02 gCO₂-C/m² d⁻¹ for the HP, IP, LP, and MP phases, respectively. Wintertime CO₂ emission represents 20% of the annual CO₂ emissions in this boreal black spruce forest soil. Atmospheric temperature, pressure, and soil temperature correlate

- at levels of 56, 25, and 31 % to winter CO_2 flux, respectively, during the snow-covered period of 2006/2007, when snow depth experienced one of its lowest totals of the past 80 years. Atmospheric temperature and soil temperature at 5 cm depth, modulated by atmospheric pressure, were found to be significant factors in determining winter CO_2 emission and fluctuation in snowpack. Regional/global process-based carbon cycle
- ²⁰ models should be reassessed to account for the effect of winter CO₂ emissions, regulated by temperature and soil latent-heat flux, in the snow-covered soils of Arctic and sub-Arctic terrestrial ecosystems of the Northern Hemisphere.

1 Introduction

While winter CO₂ flux is an important carbon source in snow-covered sub-Arctic and
 Arctic ecosystems for the estimation of the annual carbon budget (Zimov et al., 1993, 1996; Oechel et al., 1997; Winston et al., 1997; Fahnestock et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2007), there are few reports on continuous winter CO₂-flux measurements in high



latitudinal regions. Most studies, rather, have intermittently measured winter CO₂ flux with a static chamber built on the snow surface. These flux measurements are limited due to the extreme cold weather from December to February and issues with static and/or continuous chamber operation at identical sampling points, made difficult by newly accumulated snow in high latitudes. Winter CO₂ emissions, though, correspond 5 to 10-30% of the annual soil respiration rate in alpine, sub-Arctic, and Arctic regions during the long (>200-day) snow-covered period (Sommerfeld et al., 1993; Zimov et al., 1993, 1996; Brooks et al., 1996; Oechel et al., 1997; Mast et al., 1998; Wickland et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2007), suggesting that the winter carbon contribution should not be overlooked when evaluating the annual carbon budget on regional and global scales. 10 In this study, the monitoring of continuous winter CO₂-flux measurements was conducted using non-destructive infrared (NDIR) CO₂ sensors, installed before snowfall in black spruce forest soils during the seasonally snow-covered period of 2006/2007. These sensors have been used in temperate forests during winter before (Hirano, 2005; Takagi et al., 2005); however, this study is the first to use these sensors to report on

¹⁵ Takagi et al., 2005); however, this study is the first to use these sensors to report on continuous winter CO_2 -flux measurement in the boreal black forest of interior Alaska, under an environment of extreme cold.

The environmental factors influencing winter CO_2 flux are atmospheric pressure and wind speed (Massman et al., 1997; Takagi et al., 2005; Massman and Frank, 2006), atmospheric temperature (Takagi et al., 2005), soil temperature (Zimov et al., 1993,

- atmospheric temperature (Takagi et al., 2005), soil temperature (Zimov et al., 1993, 1996; Oechel et al., 1997; Winston et al., 1997; Hirano, 2005; Monson et al., 2006), soil moisture (Hirano, 2005), and snow depth (Fahnestock et al., 1998; Takagi et al., 2005). Moreover, atmospheric pressure affects wind speed and atmospheric temperature, subsequent wind speed influences CO₂ fluctuation within the snowpack, and
- the ambient temperature modulates snow/soil temperatures. The soil temperature, depending on snow depth and atmospheric temperature, also governs the strength of microbial activity that terminally establishes the magnitude of CO₂ production in soils. We investigated each of these environmental factors affecting continuous winter CO₂-flux measurement through the snowpack in this study.



Several process-based ecosystem carbon models (e.g. Biome-BGC, TEM, and Sim-CYCLE) have used atmospheric temperature data as one of the key parameters for the assessment of the cycle and budget of terrestrial carbon on regional and global scales (e.g. Running and Coughlan, 1988; Kimball et al., 1997; McGuire et al., 2000; ⁵ Ito and Oikawa, 2002; Lagergren et al., 2006). However, the implication of winter carbon emissions in the snow-covered Arctic and sub-Arctic terrain of the Northern Hemisphere upon the regional/global carbon budget is poorly accounted for in these models. Because vegetative photosynthesis and respiration does not occur in environments of extreme cold, soil-originated CO₂ emission through the snowpack represents the only ecosystem respiration during the winter. Therefore, continuous winter CO₂ emission, dependent on environmental factors, is a significant key in the winter carbon contribution to process-based terrestrial ecosystem carbon models, as well as to the assessment of the terrestrial carbon cycle/budget on regional and global scales.

2 Materials and methods

15 2.1 Sampling locations and methods

The study site is a typical boreal forest in Fairbanks, in the Alaska interior (64°52′ N, 147°51′W; 155 m a.s.l.). The average monthly temperature in Fairbanks between 1971 and 2005 was lowest in January at –23.2 °C, and highest in July at 16.9 °C, with an annual average of -2.9 °C (Shulski and Wendler, 2007). The average annual precipitation was 263 mm, of which approximately 37 % fell as snow, and the rest as rain. The minimum temperatures at 80 cm above the soil surface and in soil 5 cm below the surface were –45.4 °C (DOY 418 to 421) and –11.2 °C (DOY 425 to 430), respectively, during the winter of 2006/2007. The average snow depth during the winter of 2006/2007 was 25 cm; this average was the third lowest since 1929 (Alaska Climate Research Center, 2008).



Black spruce (*Picea mariana*) is the dominant overstory tree species, with ages from 45 to 120 years (Vogel et al., 2005). The black spruce canopy is sparse. The average canopy height is about 3.5 m, but there are taller trees of up to 6 m, sporadically. Understory vegetation includes typical boreal forest shrubs, such as *Rhododendron groen*-

Iandisum, Vaccinium uliginosum, Vaccinium vitis-idaea, and Betula glandulosa, as well as some Carex species. The forest floor is almost completely covered by mosses, such as Sphagnum capillifolium, Sphagnum magellanicum, Sphagnum riparium, Calliergon stramineum, Aulacomnium palustre, and patchy lichen, such as Cladonia species. Discontinuous permafrost is widely distributed 40 cm below the surface, and a thin, silty clay layer exists on the upper-most permafrost (Kim et al., 2007).

The sensor system was built on sphagnum and feather moss layers and was in operation from 6 October 2006 (DOY 280) to 30 April 2007 (DOY 485) for the monitoring of continuous CO_2 concentration in snowpack during the winter of 2006/2007 (Fig. 1). The non-dispersive infrared sensor (NDIR; Vaisala GMD 20; Helsinki, Finland) was

- set on a length of wooden stick (3 cm diameter, 100 cm long) at four directional levels (10, 20, 30, and 50 cm above the moss surface) for prevention of disturbance (Fig. 1). This sensor is the same type used for prior winter CO₂-flux measurements (Hirano et al., 2003; Takagi et al., 2005). The installed sensor was covered with a PVC pipe (48 mm OD; 40 mm ID; 170 mm long), open on one end, for water and sensor-window
- ²⁰ protection. The NDIR-equipped sensor window is 50 mm long with a 4 mm-wide slit on the head, which measures soil CO₂ concentration through the snowpack. The cable from each sensor was connected to a datalogger (CR 1000, Campbell Scientific Inc., USA) within an ice cooler for the storage of CO₂ data. A commercial heating pad was used for operation of the logger during winter. CO₂ concentration measured at the 50 cm level above the surface is not discussed here due to unexpected failure of the sensor in the extremely cold weather.

The calibration of each sensor was conducted using certified EPA protocol for a CO_2 standard cylinder (1000.0 ppm; Airgas Inc., USA) and zero gas (pure N₂ cylinder; Airgas Inc., USA), before and after the monitoring of CO_2 concentration in the laboratory.



The sensor responded to the standard cylinder within 10 s, and repeatedly measured standard CO_2 concentration for 60 min. The precision on each sensor ranged from 0.6 to 4.5%, and the CO_2 concentration of each sensor was corrected. The CO_2 concentration in the snowpack was calculated at 30 min intervals for each corrected sensor.

- Temperatures in snow and soil were measured at 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 80 cm above, and at 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, and 50 cm below the soil surface, and were monitored at a 1.5 h interval, with sensors (TMC6-HC, Onset Computer Corporation, USA) and 4 external channel-loggers (U-12 HOBO, Onset Computer Corporation, USA). Soil moisture was monitored at 5 and 20 cm below the surface at a 1.5 h interval using
- ¹⁰ sensors (ML2x, Dynamax Inc, USA) and a 2-channel logger (THLOG-2, Dynamax Inc, USA). The monitoring of temperature and soil moisture was conducted from 12 September 2006 to 6 September 2007. Atmospheric pressure was recorded by barometer (CS100, Campbell Scientific Inc., USA) every 30 min at 8 m at the eddy-covariance tower site. The daily snow-depth data was taken from the Alaska Climate Research
- ¹⁵ Center of the Geophysical Institute (GI) at the University of Alaska Fairbanks (UAF) during the winter of 2006/2007 (Alaska Climate Research Center, 2008: Fig. 2). Because the snow depth was much lower than in normal years, winter CO_2 flux was estimated between DOY 357 (23 December 2006) to 466 (11 April 2007), when the snow depth was higher than 25 cm at the lowest. While the snow depth was less than 20 cm before
- DOY 257, the winter flux could not be estimated. The accumulated snowpack began to melt on DOY 446 (21 March 2007). The snow survey was also conducted at a twoweek interval. Two to five snow samples were collected using a snow density sampler (4 cm H × 5 cm W × 5 cm D) and a snow cutter for the estimation of snow porosity (Kim et al., 2007).

25 2.2 Estimation of winter CO₂ flux

The winter CO₂ flux through snowpack to the atmosphere was obtained by applying the following equation under a steady-state condition: $F_{CO2} = D \cdot (\partial C/\partial z) \cdot \tau \cdot \theta$ (Kim et al., 2007), where *D* is CO₂ diffusivity corrected only for the in-situ temperature within the



snowpack measured in $\text{cm}^2 \sec^{-1}$ (Sommerfeld et al., 1993; Fahnestock et al, 1999); $\partial C/\partial z$ is the vertical CO₂ concentration gradient observed within the snowpack in ppmv cm⁻¹; τ is tortuosity; and θ is the snow porosity. The CO₂ concentration gradients from 10 to 30 cm and from 20 to 30 cm were similar, indicating that the gradient is almost linear; the gradient ratios for the 10-30 cm and 20-30 cm ranges varied from 5 0.87 to 1.22. Porosity was calculated from the density of ice ($\rho_{ice} = 0.91$) and the water contents of the snowpack over the gradient interval. Tortuosity is difficult to measure and is usually described as a function of porosity, with values ranging from $\theta^{1/3}$ to $\theta^{2/3}$ (Striegl, 1993). In this study, the tortuosity of the snowpack was estimated by the theoretical relation $\tau = \theta^{1/3}$ (Millington, 1959), which yielded values ranging from 0.74 to 10 0.92. These values are similar to the range of 0.70 to 0.91 for the whole observation period for boreal forest snowpack in interior Alaska. Sommerfeld et al. (1993), Mast et al. (1998), and Kim et al. (2007) reported similar data (0.68 to 0.90) in subalpine snowpack in Wyoming and Colorado, and in boreal forest snowpack in Alaska.

15 2.3 Analysis of soil heat flux

We correlated winter CO₂ flux with the non-conductive heat flux component of the active layer. The non-conductive heat component, r_h , is expressed in terms of volumetric heat production in W/m² and is estimated by considering one-dimensional energy conservation as formulated:

$$_{20} \quad r_h = c_h \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} - k_h \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}$$

where c_h is the volumetric bulk heat capacity, k_h is bulk thermal conductivity, T is temperature, t is time, and z is depth. Neglecting energy exchange below the lowest measurement, the total amount of non-conductive heat components, R_h , is the result



(1)

of r_h multiplied by the thickness of the soil layer, d:

 $R_h = \sum_i r_h^i d^i$

where the subscript *i* represents the *i*-th layer from surface to bottom. We set the mid-depth of the *i*-th layer to be at the *i*-th measurement depth from the surface. Accordingly, the soil column was divided into three layers, the thicknesses of which were 5, 7.5, and 10 cm from the surface to bottom (25 cm). Finite element formulations to solve equations (1) and (2) are described in Ishikawa et al. (2006).

We assumed k_h to range from 5.5×10^{-7} to 8.0×10^{-7} J/kg/K, referring to the thermal diffusivity for frozen silty clay shown by Yershov (1998; $d_h = 5.5 \times 10^{-7} - 8 \times 10^{-7} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$) and to its heat capacity shown by Roth and Boike (2001; $c_h = 2.2 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6$ J/m/K). These calculations neglected the contribution of soil air because of its very low mass density.

3 Results and discussion

During the winter, wind speed and direction have been important factors affecting win ter CO₂ fluxes in temperate and subalpine regions (Massman et al., 1997; Takagi et al., 2005; Massman and Frank, 2006). However, most (>85 %) of the wind speed during winter at our location was less than 1.0 m sec⁻¹. Thus, winter CO₂ flux as an effect of wind speed was not considered in our study. We used 6-h averages of CO₂ concentration, winter CO₂ flux, atmospheric pressure, temperatures in air and soil, and soil moisture, during the snow-covered period of 2006/2007.

3.1 Environment factors and CO₂ concentration

Soil moisture and the temperatures at 80 cm above the soil surface and at 5 cm below the surface were monitored from DOY 255 to 614 (Fig. 3). Atmospheric temperature



(2)

showed a higher daily variation, and the temporal fluctuation of soil temperature was lower. Soil moisture at 5 cm below the surface was affected by low (<0 °C) atmospheric temperature and soil freezing, and the freezing rate from 5 to 20 cm was 0.75 cm d⁻¹, suggesting that the time it took the freezing front to reach 20 cm was 20 days. Kim et

- al. (2007) reported a freezing rate of 4 cm d⁻¹ for 10 to 30 cm below the surface during the winter of 2004/2005 in the same observation area. In our study, the frozen soils began to thaw at 5 cm by DOY 489 (4 May 2007), and at 20 cm by DOY 508 (22 May 2007); the melting rate over these 19 days was 0.78 cm d⁻¹, similar to the freezing rate in early winter.
- ¹⁰ Ambient pressure and temperature ranged from 943 to 1020 hPa and from -45 to 17 °C, respectively, during the period of DOY 350 to 466. The temporal variation in pressure showed an inverse tendency to the change in temperature. Thus, in order to quantify the effects of pressure and temperature for winter CO_2 flux, the magnitude of pressure during the snow-covered period was divided into four phases: high pressure 15 (HP: >1000 hPa); intermediate pressure (IP: 985 hPa < P < 1000 hPa); low pressure
- (IP: >1000 IIPa), interinediate pressure (IP: 985 IIPa < P < 1000 IIPa), low pressure (LP: <985 hPa); and a snow-melting period (MP, after DOY 466); all shown in Fig. 2. Atmospheric temperature was -31.9 ± 11.0 °C (Coefficient of Variance [CV]: 35 %) for HP; -22.1 ± 8.6 °C (CV: 39 %) for IP; -21.5 ± 6.8 °C for LP; and -8.4 ± 12.4 °C (CV: 146 %) for MP. These air pressure phases, then, correspond to the magnitude of air temperature.

Figure 4 shows the relationship between ambient temperature and temperatures in snow (10, 20, and 40 cm above the soil surface), and soil (5 cm below), in order to demonstrate additional influence on ambient temperature. The ambient temperature indicates correlation coefficients (R^2) of 0.995, 0.99, and 0.79 for snow at 40, 20, and 10 cm above the surface, respectively, and 0.08 for soil 5 cm beneath the surface, sug-

10 cm above the surface, respectively, and 0.08 for soil 5 cm beneath the surface, suggesting that the extent of atmospheric temperature influence reached to 20 cm within the snowpack when the snow depth was less than 40 cm.

 CO_2 concentrations at 10, 20, and 30 cm above the soil surface are shown with temporal variations in pressure in Fig. 5. The 6 h average CO_2 concentrations in





the snowpack were 627 ± 19 ppm (CV: 3.0%) for 10 cm, 532 ± 18 ppm (CV: 3.3%) for 20 cm, and 473 ± 32 ppm (CV: 6.7%) for 30 cm. The concentration range of 365 to 692 ppm in sphagnum/feather moss regimes is comparable to the 400 to 740 ppm measured in tussock tundra/sphagnum moss regimes of boreal forest soils (Kim et al.,

 $_{5}$ 2007), during which tussock tundra was also found to be one of the carbon sources in boreal forest and Arctic terrestrial ecosystems of the Northern Hemisphere (Oechel et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2007). The temporal variations in CO₂ concentration showed a similar trend at 10, 20, and 30 cm levels, and may be affected by ambient pressure, as is the case in the relationship between pressure and ambient temperature.

3.2 Estimation of winter CO₂ flux

Winter CO₂ flux varied from 0.19 to 0.26 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ for the HP phase (>1000 hPa), from 0.19 to 0.27 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ for IP (985 < P < 1000), from 0.20 to 0.32 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ for LP (<985 hPa), and from 0.14 to 0.24 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ for MP. The average winter CO₂ flux and atmospheric temperature for the four pressure phases are shown in Table 1. Average winter CO₂ flux among the three pressure phases, excluding the snow-melting period, was not significantly different based on a one-way ANOVA with a 95% confidence level. During the snow-covered period of 109 days, the average CO₂ flux was 0.22 ± 0.02 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹ CV: 10%), indicating a value corresponding to those measured by concentration profile (0.21 ± 0.06 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹) and

- ²⁰ chamber (0.26 ± 0.06 gCO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹) methods during the winter of 2004/2005 in the same black spruce forest soils of interior Alaska (Kim et al., 2007). Furthermore, the snow depth in the winter of 2004/2005 was much deeper (>20 cm) than 2006/2007. Although the snow depth was greater, the minimum soil temperature at 5 cm below the surface was -17 °C, due to an extremely cold ambient temperature of -55 °C (12
- January 2005). This suggests that the greater snow depth (68 cm) plays little role in insulating the soil below -50 °C. In the temperate forests and grassland soils of northern Japan, greater snow depth (>80 cm) has kept soil at 5 cm beneath the surface warmer



than zero (Takagi et al., 2005), and an increase in snow depth (35 to 70 cm) caused a temperature jump from -0.42 to 0.15 °C at a 5 cm soil depth (Kim and Tanaka, 2002). This kind of change in soil temperature modulates the magnitude of soil CO₂ production by affecting soil microbial activity in tundra soils during the winter (Oechel et al., 1997; Panikov et al., 2006).

Temporal variations in pressure and ambient temperature for winter CO₂ flux are shown in Fig. 6. The temporal variation of winter CO₂ flux shows a tendency that is qualitatively inverse to that of pressure (Fig. 6a) but is similar to that of ambient temperature (Fig. 6b). The winter CO₂ flux abruptly decreased from 0.28 to 0.17 gCO₂-¹⁰ Cm⁻² d⁻¹ by DOY 446 (21 March 2007), which was the first day of snow melting – when ambient temperature increased to above zero, as shown in Fig. 3. Also, the temperature dropped from 1.23 to –13.8 °C, and the pressure increased from 959 to 980 hPa. Therefore, the atmospheric temperature, modulated by the pressure, is a significant factor in determining winter CO₂ flux in the seasonally snow-covered boreal ¹⁵ forest soil of interior Alaska.

3.3 Environmental factors regulating winter CO₂ flux

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Winter CO₂ flux has a direct relationship to atmospheric pressure for HP (>1000 hPa), LP (<985 hPa), and MP (snow-melting) days of the snow-covered period (Fig. 7a), indicating an inverse correlation for each pressure phase. The data for the IP (985 < P < 1000) phase is virtually excluded in Fig. 7a – the temperatures in air and soil during IP are discussed below. The correlation coefficients (R^2) were 0.25 for HP, 0.31 for LP, and 0.18 for MP. Ambient pressure has a lesser effect in determining winter CO₂ flux through the snowpack to the atmosphere during the winter season.

Winter CO₂ flux shows a strong exponential relationship to ambient temperature, though, for three pressure phases: the correlation coefficients were 0.80 at low temperature for HP, 0.26 at high temperature for LP, and 0.58 for MP (Fig. 7b). The regression curves in Fig. 7b are $Y = 0.27e^{(0.0697)}$ for HP, $Y = 0.29e^{(0.0077)}$ for LP, and



Y = $0.18e^{(0.0657)}$ for MP. Figure 7c shows the relationship between CO₂ flux and ambient temperature for IP (985 < *P* < 1000), which also has strong correlation, suggesting that the air temperature accounted for 58 % of the variability of winter CO₂ emission during IP, with a regression curve of Y = $0.27e^{(0.0647)}$. During the LP phase, the coefficient was less than half the coefficient in either HP, MP, or IP. Winter CO₂ flux during the early days of the snow-covered period was much higher than during the remainder of this period. This may be due to a higher concentration difference between the 10and 20 cm levels before DOY 368, when the snow depth was less than 27 cm. As a result, we calculated the 6 h average CO₂ concentration gradient before and after DOY 368; the difference in CO₂ flux is likely due in part to warm soil temperature before DOY 368. The soil temperature is dependent on the snow depth and affects the soil microbial physiology and the community composition (Brooks et al., 1996; Oechel et

al., 1997; Kim and Tanaka, 2002; Takagi et al., 2005; Monson et al., 2006).

The Q_{10} is the temperature coefficient of the reaction and is defined as the ratio of reaction rate at an interval of 10 °C. Our Q_{10} values were 1.22 for HP, 1.25 for LP, 1.26 for MP, and 1.37 for IP. These values are much lower than those of previous studies during the winter (Oechel et al., 1997; Monson et al., 2006). Monson et al. (2005) reported the R_7 (a first-order exponential coefficient analogous to the Q_{10} coefficient used in biochemical studies) was 105 near trees and 1.25×10^6 in the open space of the LTEP Ninget Pidge Amerifum site. These values are experted and the studies of th

²⁰ the LTER Niwot Ridge Ameriflux site. These values are several orders of magnitude higher than the range of Q_{10} values found in previous studies of terrestrial ecosystem soils, demonstrating that higher temperature sensitivity invokes a physical limitation to substrate diffusion—as liquid water disappears below zero (between 0 and -1°C). Panikov et al. (2006) proved that soil CO₂ production occurred even under the extremely cold soil temperature of -39°C, with soil core samples (0–30 cm) from Barrow,

Siberia, and Sweden; their Q_{10} values ranged from 2.1 to 8.5.

Estimated soil non-conductive heat flux evolved negatively through the period from DOY 357 to 460, for both upper and lower d_h and c_h (Fig. 8a). Assuming that this heat arises from a single phase transition of water, we compared soil moisture



observed, using R_h divided by the enthalpy of the transition from phases α to β , $L^{\sigma\beta}$ ({ L^{sl}, L^{lv} } = {0.333, 2.45} MJ kg⁻¹, where the superscript s, I and v represent solid, liquid, and vapor, respectively), and found that this heat was mostly from vaporization. As shown in Fig. 8a, winter CO₂ flux showed a decreasing trend until the end of the snowcovered period, while latent heat flux showed an increasing trend. Also, both fluxes showed significant correlations ($R^2 = 0.49$ and 0.52, with p < 0.001 in both) before the onset of snow melting (Fig. 9). These findings suggest that the higher upward vapor movement in the soil column occurred in accordance with the smaller, soil-originated CO₂ flux. We postulate that winter soil-originated CO₂ is hampered by the reduction

- ¹⁰ of snow pores linked to the atmosphere due to compaction of the snowpack, vapor condensation in the snow column, and subsequent snow metamorphism. This consideration is supported by the comparison between CO_2 flux and the snow temperature gradient (Fig. 8b). Winter CO_2 flux was occasionally greater when the snow temperature profile approached the isotherm and the condensation rate was reduced
- (e.g. DOY 364, 368, 392–399, 406, 411, 423, 434; Fig. 8a and b). The temperature gradient governed the vapor pressure gradient through the snow and soil column, modulating evaporation, condensation, and vapor movements. This modified the passage of winter CO₂.

Figure 10 shows the correlation coefficient percentages (%) for atmospheric pres²⁰ sure, temperature, soil temperature, and winter CO₂ flux during each pressure phase. During HP, IP, and MP, the strongest environmental factors determining winter CO₂ flux were atmospheric temperature, soil temperature, and atmospheric pressure, respectively. Takagi et al. (2005) implied that winter CO₂ flux responded directly to ambient temperature, and not to soil temperature, even beneath a 1 m snowpack of temperate
²⁵ forest soils in Japan. They inferred that the atmospheric temperature affected the root activity of trees through their trunks and that the variation in root respiration strongly affected fluctuation in CO₂ concentration in soil under the snowpack. Vogel et al. (2005) suggested that the contribution of root respiration in mature black spruce forest soils varied from 81–85 % of total soil respiration during the winter. Moreover, because their



site is similar to the study site here, Kim et al. (2007) demonstrated that the $\delta^{13}CO_2$ of -22.5% originated from root respiration rather than heterotrophic respiration in black spruce forest soils of interior Alaska during the winter. Atmospheric temperature and soil temperature at 5 cm, depending on ambient pressure, therefore, play significant and key factors in regulating winter CO_2 emission through the snowpack in these forest soils during the snow-covered period.

3.4 Implication for regional winter carbon budget

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Average wintertime CO₂ emission was $24.3 \pm 1.3 \text{ gCO}_2$ -C m⁻²/season (CV: 5%) during the snow-covered period of 109 days. For our four pressure phases, average emissions are shown in Table 2. The cumulative snow depth in 2006/2007 was one of the lowest years in Fairbanks over the past 80 years - the snow depth during the 212-day winter period of 2006/2007 corresponds to merely half of a normal season. However, winter CO₂ emission has always occurred before DOY 357 and after DOY 466. Thus, winter CO₂ emission was reevaluated as a half of the average flux $(0.23 \pm 0.02 \text{ gCO}_2\text{-Cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ measured before DOY 357 (23 December 2006), 15 and as a half of the flux $(0.17 \pm 0.02 \text{ gCO}_2\text{-Cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ measured after DOY 466 (21 March 2007). The wintertime CO₂ emission was $36 \pm 1.7 \text{ gCO}_2$ -C m⁻²/season (CV: 5%) during the winter of 2006/2007. This emission corresponds to 20% of the annual CO₂ emitted from boreal black forest soils in interior Alaska; the CO₂ emission was $142 \pm 57 \text{ gCO}_2\text{-Cm}^{-2}$ /season (CV: 40%) in the same study site during the 20 growing period of 2006. Kim et al. (2007) reported that the wintertime CO₂ emission was $49 \pm 13 \text{ gCO}_2$ -C m⁻²/season in the same boreal forest during the winter of 2004/2005, a difference due to a longer snow-covered period and greater snow depth than in this study. Also in the boreal forest of interior Alaska, Vogel et al. (2005) measured a winter respiration of $36-54 \text{ gCO}_2$ -C m⁻²/season in three different tree ages 25 (75, 110, and 120 years) of black spruce forests of Bonanza Creek, interior Alaska, representing 8-18% of the annual CO₂ emission. Further, the winter respiration was



40–55 gCO₂-C m⁻²/season in black spruce and jack pine forests of the BOREAS study area (Winston et al., 1997) and later 25–35 gCO₂-C m⁻²/season in the black spruce forest of the BOREAS area (Wang et al., 2003), in which the winter carbon contributions accounted for 5–19% of the annual respiration. The BOREAS study area contained one south-facing and one north-facing vegetation distribution, resulting in a difference of soil drainage that greatly affects the species composition and functions of the boreal forest ecosystem (Wang et al., 2003). The magnitude of soil drainage regulates the decomposition rate of soil organic carbon and the vegetation biophysical conditions.

In snow-covered Arctic tundra ecosystems of the North Slope of Alaska, the winter CO₂ emissions from moist tussock tundra and coastal wet sedge were 70 and 20 gCO₂-C m⁻²/season, respectively (Oechel et al., 1997). That is the main share of the total annual net carbon emission in Arctic tundra ecosystems. In the same Arctic tundra ecosystems, winter CO₂ emission ranged from 1.3 to 11 gCO₂-C m⁻²/season (Fahnestock et al., 1998), depending on the vegetation community types, flux that represents up to 17 % of the annual carbon flux of Arctic tundra ecosystems.

Considering all the snow-covered tussock and moss regimes in the Northern Hemisphere ($6.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}^2$; Whalen and Reeburgh, 1998), winter carbon emission should not be overlooked when estimating regional and global carbon budgets. Furthermore, regional/global process-based CO₂ cycle models should be sufficiently discussed and modified to include winter CO₂ contribution, considering atmospheric temperature as a key regulating factor and depending on atmospheric pressure, in snow-covered soils

of Arctic and sub-Arctic terrestrial ecosystems in the Northern Hemisphere.

4 Conclusions

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The continuous monitoring of winter CO₂ flux in snowpack was conducted in sphagnum and feather moss regimes of black spruce forest soils of interior Alaska during the winter of 2006/2007. Measurements were taken of key environmental factors that regulate winter CO₂ flux, such as atmospheric pressure and temperatures in air and



soil, during the snow-covered period from DOY 357 (23 December 2006) to 466 (11 March 2007). Atmospheric pressure was divided into four phases: >1000 hPa (HP: high pressure), <986 hPa (LP: low pressure), 985 < P < 1000 (IP: intermediate pressure), and the snow-melting period (MP), for the quantification of the effect of atmospheric pressure on temperature-modulated winter CO₂ flux. Winter flux greatly depends on atmospheric temperature, which is governed by these four pressure phases. Pressure is an important factor in indirectly and directly influencing atmospheric temperature and winter CO₂ flux. The transport of CO₂ emissions through soil and snow columns is modified by snow compaction and metamorphism and is modulated by evaporation, condensation, and vapor movements through the columns. Moreover, atmospheric temperature and soil temperature play significant roles in determining winter CO₂ flux, demonstrated by the fact that atmospheric temperature accounted for an av-

 CO_2 flux, demonstrated by the fact that atmospheric temperature accounted for an average of 56 % of the variability of winter CO_2 emission during the snow-covered period. Because snow-covered tussock and moss regimes are widely distributed in Northern

Hemisphere, wintertime carbon emission is of considerable significance when estimating seasonal, regional and global carbon budgets, as this emission represented 20% of the annual soil carbon emissions in black spruce forest soils in interior Alaska during the cold winter of 2006/2007. Regional/global process-based CO₂ cycle models should be reassessed to consider the effect that atmospheric temperature and soil latent-heat flux have in regulating winter CO₂ emissions in snow-covered soils of Arctic and sub-Arctic terrestrial ecosystems in the Northern Hemisphere.

Acknowledgements. This study was jointly funded by the Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology (JAMSTEC), the Japan Aerospace Expedition Agency (JAXA) as an IARC-JAXA Information System (IJIS) project, and partly supported by the Korea Ministry of

- 25 Environment as "The Eco-technopia 21 project". We thank Y. Harazono and M. Ueyama of the International Arctic Research Center (IARC) at the University of Alaska Fairbanks for providing air pressure data; S. Nakatsubo of the Institute of Low Temperature Science (ILTS) and M. Ishikawa of the Graduate School of Environmental Earth Science, Hokkaido University, Japan for the management of instruments and analysis of soil heat flux; and L. Hinzman of IARC for his funding support and encouragement on this study.
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Table 1. The 6 h averaged air temperature and winter CO_2 fluxes under four phases on air pressure during the snow-covered period of 2007 (DOY 357 to 466)

Pressure (hF	'a)	Observation	Air Te	emperatu	ıre (°C)	Winter	CO ₂ Flux	$(gCO2-C m^{-2} d^{-1})$
Phase	Sign	Number	Mean	Stdev	CV (%)	Mean	Stdev	CV (%)
>1000 985 < <i>P</i> < 1000 <985 Snow-melting*	HP IP LP MP	116 7132 108 80 436**	-31.9 -22.1 -21.5 -8.4	11.0 8.6 6.8 12.4	35 39 31 146	0.22 0.23 0.25 0.17	0.02 0.02 0.03 0.02	9 7 12 11

Stdev and CV denote standard deviation and coefficinet of variance.

* Snow-melting began at DOY 446 (21 March 2008).

** The observation number is in total.

Pressure (hPa)	Observation	Winter CO_2 Emission (g CO_2 -C m ⁻²)			
	Days	Mean	Stdev	CV (%)	
HP	29	6.64	0.58	9	
IP	33	7.36	0.64	7	
LP	27	6.84	0.82	12	
MP	20	3.50	0.39	11	
Total	109	24.3	1.25	5	

Stdev and CV denote standard deviation and coefficinet of variance.

Table 2. Winter CO₂ Emissions during the snow-cover period of 2006/2007





Fig. 1. Sampling scheme of observation system in sphagnum and feather moss regimes of black spruce forest, interior Alaska during the winter of 2006/2007.





Fig. 2. Daily snowfall (black line) and cumulative snowpack (grey line) during the snow-covered period of DOY 357 (23 December 2006) to 466 (11 April 2007). Winter CO_2 flux is estimated when the snow depth is over 30 cm, due to the sensor levels.

















Fig. 5. Time series of CO_2 concentrations at 10, 20, and 30 cm above the soil surface within the snowpack, with seasonal change in atmospheric pressure. The concentration data was comparable with measurements from 392 to 742 ppm during the winter of 2004/2005 (Kim et al., 2007).





Fig. 6. Temporal variations of winter CO₂ flux along with (a) atmospheric pressure and (b) ambient temperature. Atmospheric pressure affects temperature, which regulates the magnitude of winter CO₂ flux. Thus, the pressure is divided into four phases: high pressure (HP: >1000 hPa), low pressure (LP: <985 hPa), intermediate pressure (IP: 985 < P < 1000), and a snow-melting period (MP: since DOY 446), all shown in Table 1. The temperature was much higher for LP than for HP – a difference of over 10 °C on average.







Fig. 7. Relationships between winter CO_2 flux and: (a) atmospheric pressure during HP, LP, and MP; (b) ambient temperature during HP, LP, and MP; (c) ambient temperature during IP. The empty area for IP in (a) and (b) denotes exclusion between 985 and 1000 hPa. Winter CO_2 fluxes show good exponential relations with ambient temperature for four pressure phases. The symbols are open circles for HP, stars for LP, solid circles for MP, and solid triangles for IP.



Fig. 8. (a) Temporal variations in winter CO₂ flux (g CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹;) and soil non-conductive heat flux, R_h (W m⁻²), estimated from equation (1), as written in the text. Both fluxes were averaged on a daily basis. CO₂ flux is represented by a solid grey line. R_h was estimated for upper bounds (solid black line, {d_h, c_h} = {8.0 × 10⁻⁷ m² s⁻¹ and 2.4 × 10⁶ J/m/K}) and lower bounds (dashed black line, {d_h, c_h} = {5.5 × 10⁻⁷ m² s⁻¹, 2.0 × 10⁶ J/m/K}). **(b)** Snow temperature gradients between the soil surface and 10 cm above, from DOY 357 to 460. Ts (0 cm) and Ts (10 cm) denote temperatures at soil surface and at 10 cm above the surface.







Fig. 9. Correlations between non-conductive heat and winter CO_2 flux until DOY 445. Solid and grey circles are maximum and minimum soil heat flux, respectively, as described in Fig. 10. Solid and dashed lines show the relationships between winter CO_2 flux and soil non-conductive heat fluxes at maximum and minimum, respectively.



Fig. 10. The percentage (%) correlation, measured using the correlation coefficient (R^2), between environmental factors and winter CO₂ flux during (a) HP, (b) IP, (c) LP, and (d) MP. The numbers on the lines are the percentages of correlation between both parameters. The dotted, thin solid, and thick solid lines denote $R^2 < 0.20$, $0.20 < R^2 < 0.40$, and $R^2 > 0.40$, respectively.

